DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 273 725 UD 025 096

AUTHOR McGriff, Deborah
TITLE Change in the Junior High Schools of a Decentralized School District.
PUB DATE Apr 86
NOTE 36p.; Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (67th, San Francisco, CA., April 16-20, 1986).
PUB TYPE Reports - Research/Technical (143) -- Information Analyses (070)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Decentralization; *Economically Disadvantaged; *Junior High Schools; *Program Effectiveness; *Program Implementation; Reading Achievement; *Reading Programs; *Research Utilization; Urban Education

ABSTRACT

The efforts of a large urban school district to apply research findings on effective elementary schools to improve the reading achievement of its low-income junior high school students were studied. The research objective was to create an ethnographic account of change. At the school district studied, the Comprehensive Reading/Language Arts Program (CRLAP) was developed to improve student achievement and instructional effectiveness by reducing educational fragmentation. The investigator served as a participant observer and examined the change processes involved as the CRLAP program was implemented. The researcher utilized two major approaches to social change: (1) a "stage model" perspective, and (2) an emphasis on the systemic factors that influence the change process (structures, processes, and outputs). Findings of the study indicated that CRLAP participation produced gains larger than non-participation produced, especially in the second year of implementation. No single conceptual model was found to explain or predict change structures and processes that would account for most of the variations in outcomes. More importantly, the study indicated that the commonly used models of change overlap and complement each other--which suggests that they can be fused into a single model. The remainder of this paper presents and describes this proposed model, and presents recommendations for school districts wishing to move beyond mere effectiveness to exceptionality and also makes recommendations for further research. A six-page list of references concludes this document. (KH)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED273725

CHANGE IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS OF A DECENTRALIZED SCHOOL DISTRICT

DEBORAH McGRIFF

PAPER PRESENTED AT THE AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH ASSOCIATION ANNUAL MEETING

SAN FRANCISCO, CA
APRIL 16-20, 1986

UD025096

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

☑ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
Deborah McGriff

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure		Page
1	Comparisons of Citywide and District X Changes in the Percentage of Students Reading At and Above Grade Level in Grades Seven, Eight, and Nine	10
2	General Model of Change with Hypothesized Relation to Outcome	14
3	Proposed Redesign of a Junior High School	20
4	The Community School District X Model of Change	25
5	Components of the Model of Change	26

Change in the Junior High Schools of A

Decentralized School District

Recent research on the achievement outcomes of poor and minority students in urban junior and senior high schools has indicated that the learning gains of junior and senior high school students are less substantial than those for poor and minority students in early childhood and elementary grades (Ginsburg & Turnbull, 1981, National Assessment of Educational Progress, 1981). The two most recent "educational movements" have disregarded this disparity in outcomes. Most effective schools research has been conducted in elementary schools (Cuban, 1984; Edmonds, 1979; Kean, Summers, Raivetz, & Farber, 1979), and recent national attention on improving education has called for excellence in our schools (Goodlad, 1983; National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983; National Science Board Commission, 1983; National Task Force on Education for Economic Growth, 1983). These advocates of school improvement do not address the problem of identifying the factors that contribute to productivity in urban junior high schools.

Despite this general lack of concern for the education of poor and minority students in urban junior high schools, the collective research of several social analysts suggests that studies of urban junior high schools are not only reasonable but timely (George & Lawrence, 1982; Lipsitz, 1984; Stallings, Needles, & Stayrook, 1979). This study joined this small but growing body of research.

Purpose of the Study

This study examined the efforts of a large urban school district to

apply research findings from the effective elementary schools literature to improve the reading achievement of its low-income, junior high school students. One objective of the study was to create an ethnographic account of change that addressed recommendations cited in recent investigations of effective elementary schools (Cuban, 1984; Goodlad, 1979; Kean et al., 1979). This account of change is distinctive for several reasons. First, the detailed descriptions of change processes focused on the relationships among frequently studied building-level organizational variables as well as often neglected districtwide policy variables, classroom variables and student outcome variables. Second, this study addressed the need to document the development of effective junior high schools by extending the study's time frame to include the pre-implementation stage, initiation phase as well as 2 years of implementation. Since social analysts (Allison, 1971; Becker, 1970; Elmore, 1978; Goodlad, 1979; Sarason, 1972) generally agree that there is no single, coherent theory of social change that will serve as the basis for the analysis of change, a second objective of the study was to compare the results of this study with the related literature and to weave the findings into a theoretical model that could be tested and elaborated by other researchers and practitioners. In summary, the major purpose of this study was to bridge the proverbial gap between research and its application to practice. Its goal was to develop policy-relevant guidelines.

Research Questions

The following research questions were adopted to accomplish the goals and objectives of this study.

1. What is the relationship between systemic structural

variables and the following outcomes: adaptiveness to the Comprehensive Reading/Language Arts Program; staff satisfaction and motivation; and students' achievement on standardized reading tests?

2. What are the patterns of vertical and horizontal communications?
3. What is the impact of leadership behavior on subordinates?
4. What are the sources and consequences of conflict? How is conflict resolved?
5. What kinds of vertical and lateral power relationships are utilized to secure conformity in overt behavior?
6. Who are the critical actors, and what are the critical systemic structures and processes of both pre-implementation and the various phases of implementation?

Description of the Comprehensive Reading/Language Arts Program

The Comprehensive Reading/Language Arts Program (CRLAP) was a districtwide[1] concept which used comprehensive planning at the district level and the local school level to improve student achievement and instructional effectiveness by reducing educational fragmentation. Educational fragmentation was defined as the lack of coordination of all student instruction and administrative services that relate to reading, listening, writing, and oral communication skills (Office of Funded Programs, 1981).

1 The school district is located in the civic, cultural, commercial and university center of one of the nation's largest cities. Despite the multiethnic composition of its residents, approximately 80% of the school population is black, another 18% is Hispanic, and no more than 2% is white. Each of the district's junior high schools is Chapter I eligible. Rogers and Chung (1983) characterized this district as one of the most effective urban districts in their study.

Basically, the Comprehensive Reading/Language Arts Program proposed a framework of goals, key components, and processes which addressed the following programmatic concerns:

1. Uniform philosophy and goals for all reading/language arts programs within a school building.
2. Implementation of a curriculum which sets specific skill and knowledge objectives for students of various ability levels.
3. Appropriate instructional materials for all objectives.
4. An instructional cycle which incorporates the major tenets of mastery learning and interactive teaching.
5. A school-wide management system to ensure program coordination and continuous progress evaluation.
6. Strong instructional and organizational leadership on the part of the school principal.
7. Staff development of the entire school staff.
8. Parent involvement in program planning, implementation, and evaluation.
9. Articulation between the tax-levy and funded program teachers.
10. An improved school climate by raising expectations, fostering school affiliation, and increasing opportunities for student involvement in governance.
11. Administrative management aimed at collaboration and strong partnerships in managing the change process.

At the heart of the CRLAP was the Reading/Language Arts Task Force in each school. The school's task force members represented all school

constituencies -- the principal, assistant principal, librarian, reading specialist, teachers, parents, and others (students, liaisons for special projects, etc.). Utilizing a specified planning and assessment guide, the task force in each school conducted a detailed assessment of needs in the critical areas outlined above. The identified needs were analyzed, then prioritized and alternative solutions were incorporated into a comprehensive, integrated plan with timetables for implementing programmatic modifications. The planning state was followed by full-scale operationalization of the program, continuing evaluation or monitoring of program progress, and recycling.

Research Procedures

The objectives of this study were addressed within the context of a cross-site, ethnographic case study. These research procedures were used because they provided useful mechanisms for describing the structural, personal, political, and cultural factors that influenced the change processes that were examined.

Descriptions of change in this study were developed as the investigator functioned as a participant observer in the school district for two years. As the superintendent's liaison to the junior high schools, the researcher attended reading/language arts task force meetings, observed in schools, conducted informal interviews with members of the school community, attended professional meetings, facilitated the acquisition of instructional material, shared relevant information, and planned and conducted inservice activities. Thus, in this study the sources of information and the research strategies were extensive and varied. The official files of the district office and school level administrators were utilized.

Field notes and personal files were maintained by the researcher. Informal interviews were conducted. Observation interwove looking, listening, and asking in a variety of settings.

As previously mentioned, all data were analyzed from the perspective of several different organizational models because social analysts generally agree that there is no single, coherent theory of social change that can be used to analyze the change process. Allison (1971) and Elmore (1978) assert that there are two ways to cope with this impasse. One is to attempt to synthesize all organizational theory into a set of analytical precepts useful in the analysis of implementation. The other is to select a finite number of distinguishable models than can be used to analyze the change process. The latter strategy is used since Allison (1971), Becker (1970), and Elmore (1978) point out that the researcher's understanding of the implementation process is likely to be enhanced when the same evidence is viewed from the perspective of several different change models.

This researcher utilized two major approaches to social change. The first is a "stage model" perspective. The second emphasizes the systemic factors that influence the change process: structures, processes, and outputs.

Stage theory models of change (Abbott, 1975; Hall, 1979; Herriott & Gross, 1979; Lipham & Rankin, 1982) view change as a developmental process, not a single event. Thus, these models identify a series of stages or waves in the change process. They also focus on different factors and key actors in each stage.

Two stages of the change process were studied: pre-implementation,

which includes awareness, exploration, selection, and planning for implementation and implementation itself, which was divided into two phases -- (a) initiation activities by district personnel and each school site and (b) actual implementation activities during years one and two.

In the dissertation upon which this paper is based (McGriff, 1985), each stage of change begins with a chronological narrative of major events. This description provides a re-creation of the major events of the phase without analytical interpretation. Thus, the reader can draw personal conclusions about what could have been done (Sarason, 1982) before reading the author's analyses.

Next, the chronological narrative is analyzed and integrated with pertinent research literature (Elmore, 1978; Gross, Giaquinta, & Bernstein, 1971; Herriott & Gross, 1979; Sarason, 1971, 1982), which identifies the facilitators of change: (a) providing clarity about program philosophy, expectations, and goals, (b) assigning role responsibilities and standards of performance consistent with the objectives of the proposed change, (c) developing control mechanisms that hold subordinates responsible for well-defined standards of performance, (d) establishing social sanctions, incentives, and rewards which recognize expected performance, and (e) instituting compatible techno/structural organizational arrangements, i.e., staff development, instructional materials, supportive working relationships, time, personnel, etc.

Next, social processes are highlighted which are related to structure, both resulting from it and leading to it (Hall, 1977). Advocates of organizational development models of change (Burke & Hornstein, 1972; Galbraith, 1977; Goodlad, 1975; Schmuck, Runkel, & Langmeyer, 1972)

emphasize communication, consensus building, and participatory decision making. Political analysts (Corwin, 1973; Dahrendorf, 1961; McLaughlin, 1978; Pressman, 1975) stress the competition for power.

The analysis of social processes is followed by a discussion of the impact of school culture. Culture is more than the formal and informal organizational routines that affect structures, processes, and outcomes; it is also the meanings that the group attaches to these routines (Heckman, Oakes, & Sirotnik, 1983). Bureaucratic models of change (Deal, Meyer, & Scott, 1975; Elmore, 1978; Sarason, 1971, 1982; Weick, 1976, 1982) and responsive cultural models of change (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Heckman et al., 1983; Peters & Waterman, 1982) are utilized to identify and assess the routines of school and district personnel.

Finally, the effectiveness and outcomes of processes and structures are presented. Degree of implementation, staff concerns, impact of student performance on standardized tests, and goal clarity are the indicators that are discussed.

Findings

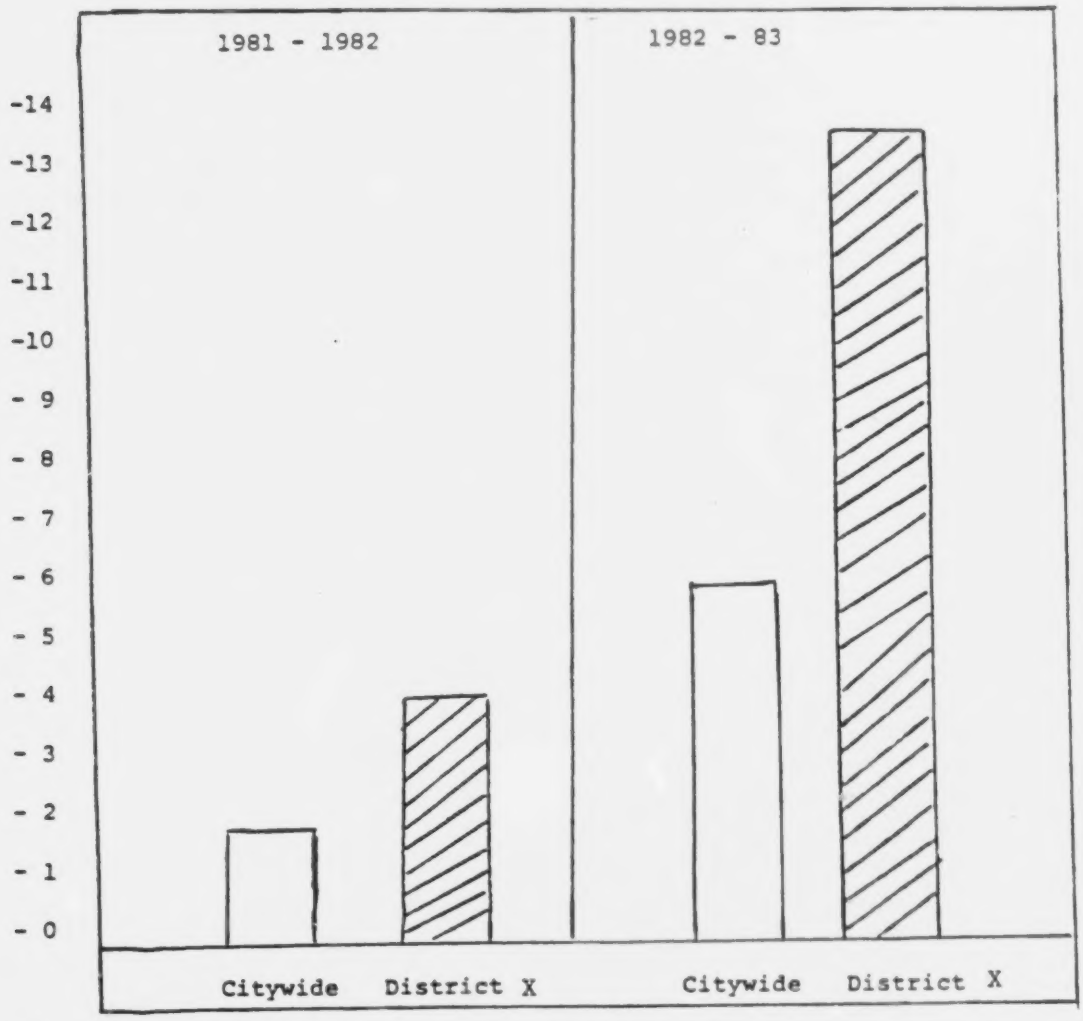
Data analysis and model development proceeded by alternating between data collection and conceptualization. The general procedures followed the steps in qualitative analysis advocated by Becker (1970). They included: (a) selection and definition of problems, concepts, and indices; (b) checking the distribution and frequency of phenomena; (c) construction of social system models; and (d) final analysis and presentation of results.

The student achievement outcomes that resulted from the various pre-implementation, initiation, and implementation activities are summarized

in Figure 1. Although patterns of performance in District X reflected citywide gains, Figure 1 indicates that the CRLAP produced larger gains. Regression effects, change in the socioeconomic level of the students, and the impact of declining enrollment, do not seem to be plausible explanations. The variance in the gains in student performance between the planning year and the end of the second year of implementation confirms the hypothesis that it takes several years for an innovation to produce substantial achievement outcomes.

The findings of this study also confirmed the hypothesis that no single conceptual model currently explains or predicts change structures and processes that will account for most of the variation in outcomes. More importantly, this study indicated that the "systems management," "organizational development," "conflict and bargaining," and "bureaucratic process" models of change overlap and complement each other. This characteristic of the models suggests that they can be fused into a single model. However, the fusion of these conceptual models should be supplemented by the stages of change perspective. Thus, this study indicates that several characteristics of the change perspective must be incorporated. One, the stages are highly interactive and are often simultaneously implemented. Two, supportive structures and processes must be present during the pre-implementation, initiation, and implementation stages. Three, the stages of change differ substantially for leaders and followers. Four, identifying the phases or steps of a change stage facilitates change management. Five, the institutionalization of an innovation must be planned for during pre-implementation, initiation, and implementation stages. Finally, a model of change must incorporate

Figure 1. Comparisons of Citywide and District X Changes in the Percent of Students Reading At and Above Grade Level in Grades Seven, Eight, and Nine.



Note. From the Office of Educational Statistics.

characteristics of the innovation and the influence of the external environment as variables.

The presentation of the proposed model begins with the identification of the phases or steps in each stage of the change process, and the specification of the differences between the movement of leaders and followers through these stages (Lipham & Rankin, 1982). As Table 1 indicates, the pre-implementation stage is divided into five phases: germination, awareness, search, selection, and strategic planning. Initiation is identified as the second stage. The implementation stage is separated into two phases: routinization and refinement. Institutionalization is not only a separate stage, but also dispersed throughout the pre-implementation, initiation, and implementation stages. Table 1 also shows the incongruity of the superintendent's, building administrators', and teachers' movement through the phases of each stage.

While this study does not address the refinement phase of implementation or the institutionalization stage of the change effort, the researcher predicts that the incongruity in the movement of the superintendent and the building personnel will continue. When the superintendent is ready to make major refinements in the CRLAP, building level personnel will probably be moving through the routinization phase. With respect to institutionalization, Table 1 depicts institutionalization as an on-going aspect of a change effort as well as a separate stage. It is hypothesized that the degree of future institutionalization will be determined by the superintendent's ability to complete additional institutionalization activities during the refinement phase, and the extent to which district level support staff and building level administrators continue to provide stable leadership,

Table 1

Stages and Phases of the Change Process

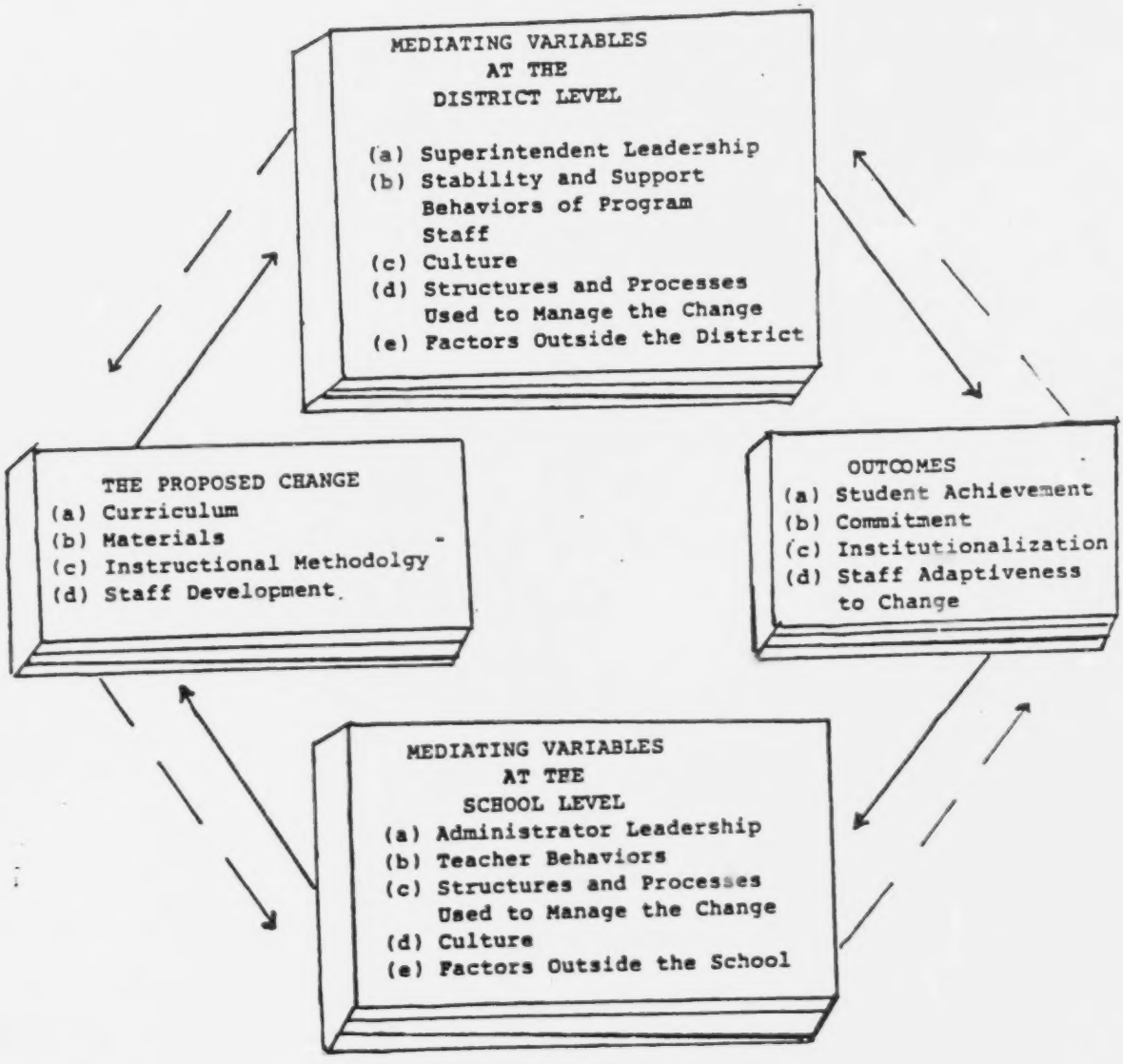
DISTRICT LEVEL LEADER	SCHOOL LEVEL LEADERSHIP TEAM	TEACHERS
Pre-implementation		
Germination	No Concern	No Concern
Awareness	No Concern	No Concern
Search	Awareness	No Concern
Selection	Selection	No Concern
Strategic Planning	Awareness	Awareness
Initiation	Strategic Planning	Awareness
Implementation		
Routinization	Initiation	Initiation
Refinement	Routinization	Routinization
	Refinement	Routinization
Institutionalization		

rather than turning their attention elsewhere.

The factors that facilitated the pre-implementation, initiation, and implementation stages of the CRLAP are presented in Figure 2. The box on the left (the proposed change) and the box on the right (outcomes) are elements of a conventional treatment-yield paradigm. The top and bottom boxes of Figure 2, however, expand a treatment-yield paradigm to an interactive model that recognizes the potential influence of the district and school environments. The descriptive, coordinating, and directive powers of the model are further expanded by the basic components listed within each box. The result is a multivariate model that assumes causal relations between key characteristics of the proposed change, the district and school environments, and outcomes. Despite the multivariate quality of the proposed model, it is simplistic for it is based on existing practice and avoids the likelihood of a hiatus between model development and practice.

Solid lines in the figure represent the theoretical impact of the proposed change on other components of the system. Broken lines represent the effects of the consequences of the proposed change on subsequent behavior as well as the impact of factors within and outside the school on the proposed change. The internal and external environments of the district and the schools are identified as mediating variables. These variables have been labeled "mediating" because they intervene between the proposed change and outcomes. There is no solid line connecting the proposed change with outcomes because there is no perceived relationship between this input and the outcomes. This effect is indirect, largely mediated by factors from outside and from within the district and its schools. No attempt has been made to order relations between the components in the model because

Figure 2. General model of change with hypothesized relation to outcomes.



of the reciprocal interrelationships among the variables.

Recommendations

Based on the above conclusions, several recommendations can be posited for improving the search for, adoption, implementation and institutionalization of an educational change. The recommendations of this study begin by identifying school improvement tasks for districts and schools that have half of their low-income junior high school students performing at or above grade level on standardized reading tests and want to move beyond the "effective" designation to a higher level of exceptionality. The final set of recommendations identify some of the questions raised by this study that might be appropriate topics for future research.

Recommendations begin with the need for further refinement of the existing schoolwide or districtwide reading/language arts program since the characteristics of the innovation itself are of critical importance in determining whether or not it will be continued or rejected (Hall, 1982). Abbott (1975) recommends that revisions reflect the shared perceptions among the staff of each local school regarding particular problems. Hall (1982) and Sparks (1983) suggest low-risk practices since they are more likely to be adopted.

The curriculum of the reading/language arts program should be reviewed to determine the inclusion of those goals and objectives that reading/language arts specialists (Botel, 1981; California State Department of Education; 1979; Project RISE Task Force, 1979; Schoephoerster, 1981) identify as critical elements. Since the findings of this study indicate that all of these elements were not implemented during the first 2 years of implementation, it seems that the continuing years of implementation

should be devoted to those objectives that have not been adequately addressed during initial implementation efforts.

The results of this study suggest that refinement activities must include: (a) maximizing the first 3 weeks of schools (Emmer & Evertson, 1980), (b) integrating the library/media program with classroom programs, (c) enhancing the teaching of reading/language arts skills and problem solving/thinking skills in all content area classrooms, (d) developing a comprehensive writing program, (e) expanding the CRLAP to include all students except those who perform 2 or more years above grade level, (f) achieving "executive control" (Joyce & Showers, 1983) of the instructional strategies recommended by the CRLAP, and (g) securing a sufficient and appropriate variety of high-quality recreational reading materials.

A study of institutionalization by Crandall and Associates (1982) resulted in a data-grounded model of institutionalization. The authors maintain that enthusiasm, commitment, skill mastery, and effectiveness of the innovation are insufficient conditions for institutionalization. They conclude that the critical elements of institutionalization are making changes in organizational structures, rules, and procedures, orienting new or reassigned staff, extending the use of the innovation to a large portion of the staff, maintaining teacher-administrator harmony, and arranging permanent funding for the program. Berman and McLaughlin (1978) also highlight the need for making these changes at both the district and school levels. This study suggests that institutionalization may be facilitated when standards of performance are included in job descriptions and evaluation criteria for building staff, and when student mastery of selected program content is monitored through districtwide criterion

referenced tests.

The strategies for institutionalizing a program and the aforementioned modifications in the reading/language arts programs not only address essential elements of a reading/language arts program, but also add critical elements to the program that will enhance its impact on student achievement. The researcher believes that these elements will continue to produce a competent or effective junior high school reading/language arts program, but not excellent junior high schools. The following section will propose a number of school improvement efforts that a district or school might examine if it decides to exceed the expectations necessary to be considered satisfactory. Some of the proposals are based on the results of this study while others are culled from research and publications regarding the education of early adolescents (California State Department of Education, 1969; National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983; National Science Board Commission, 1983; National Task Force on Education for Economic Growth, 1983; New York City Public Schools, 1983). All proposals transcend the components of a reading/language arts program in order to present recommendations which impact on the total instructional program of the junior high schools. A junior high school improvement program should contain the following programmatic and structural elements:

1. A member of the superintendent's staff should assume responsibility for the development of the junior high school improvement program. This individual should perform such functions as compiling and disseminating relevant information on junior high schools; assisting staff with the selection, implementation, and institutionalization of program changes;

organizing a coalition of organizations and individuals that are willing to demonstrate commitment to the concept of junior high school improvement through technical, material, and financial resources; establishing procedures for recruiting and training personnel; and ensuring continuity between the elementary, junior and senior high school programs.

2. Schools-within-schools should be organized within each junior high school to reduce the size of the school, to promote stronger social bonds between teachers and students, and to foster interdisciplinary instruction. Each school-within-a-school should have a theme or career focus and a teacher coordinator.

3. All original components of as well as the recommended revisions in the reading/language arts program should be implemented.

4. The science, social studies, computer sciences, and mathematics programs should be revitalized. Recommended changes should be evaluated based on the problem they are meant to solve, the history of the proposal (Tanner, 1983), and the nature of the innovation (Hall, 1982).

5. Social skills and leadership training, school and community projects, and student governance activities should be critical elements of the curriculum.

6. A career education element should be developed. Activities should include the infusion of work-related examples into daily lessons, speakers in the classrooms, field trips to work sites, training in the skills required for employment and promotability, the study of numerous careers, and job shadowing experiences.

7. Building administrators, teacher coordinators, and district office staff should receive inservice training relevant to the management

of change. Staff development for teachers should include an examination of the process of translating knowledge into artistic practice (Joyce & Showers, 1983).

8. Programs for gifted and talented students should be assessed and revised.

9. A system of recognizing and rewarding outstanding staff and student performance should be designed.

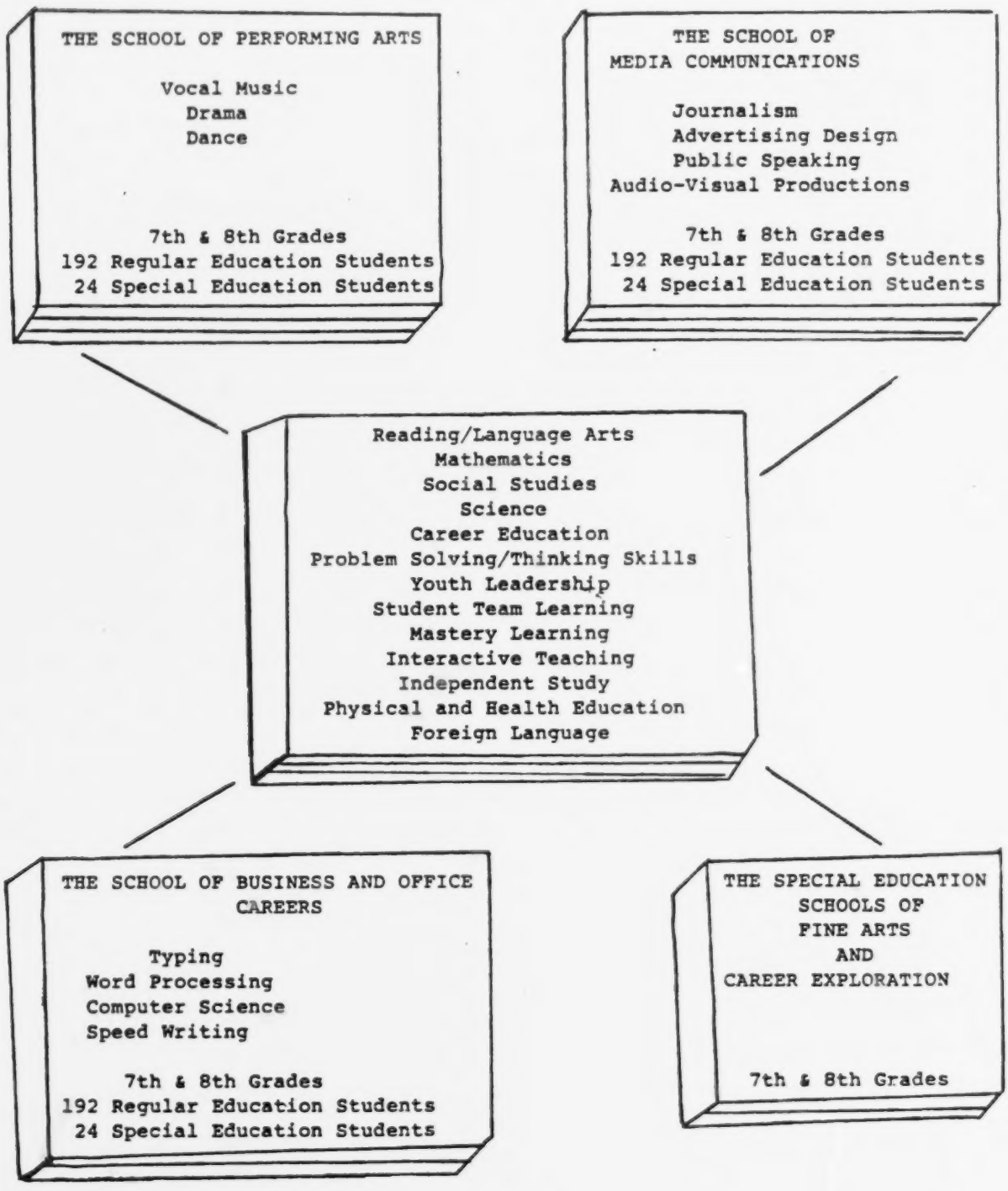
10. Culture building activities should become a priority and should utilize themes, symbols, slogans, and rituals to break old habits and to centralize staff around core values (Peters & Waterman, 1982).

11. The guidance and counseling program should be revised to include preventive activities which assist students in personal development, educational planning, and career exploration.

12. The special education teachers and students in each school must become an integral part of the district's instructional and administrative structures.

A school could be reorganized into several semi-autonomous schools-within-a-school. Each subschool should have a theme, i.e., performing arts, business careers, media communications, etc. Special education students could be mainstreamed into the regular education subschools, and special education subschools could be organized for special education students who are not ready for mainstreaming. Figure 3 presents a schematic representation of the proposed redesign of a junior high school building. The center box identifies those curricular and instructional strategies that constitute the schoolwide academic program and that would be implemented by instructors in all subschools. Each of the other boxes represent schools-

Figure 3. Proposed redesign of a junior high school.



within-the-school. Each regular education subschool has four seventh and four eighth grade classes. A seventh and eighth grade class of special education students is also mainstreamed in each regular education subschool. Each subschool is housed in a separate wing or on a separate floor of the building, and has an individual (teacher, assistant principal, etc.) who is responsible for providing program leadership. The talent or theme classes of each regular education subschool are listed in each box. These classes replace the industrial arts and home economics classes offered by most junior high schools. All students and all academic and talent teachers are assigned to a subschool based on their personal interests in the theme of the subschool.

Since two classes of special education students are mainstreamed, two special education teachers are also assigned to regular education subschools. These teachers provide technical assistance to regular education teachers as they interact with special education students.

As stated earlier, the center box provides the unifying thread to the building's instructional program. Staff and program development in these areas is conducted schoolwide, while staff and program development in talent areas is limited to the appropriate subschool.

Several features of the proposed redesign are responsive to the developmental needs of early adolescents, the professional needs of junior high school teachers, and their particular social and political milieu. One, the redesign allows students to exercise responsible choice and pursue personal interests. Two, there is an element of parental choice. Three, the new organizational structure permits small groups of students to be known by small groups of teachers who can vary the tone and pace of

the school day based on their needs. These small groups also increase the likelihood that each student will establish a positive relationship with an adult who serves as a "significant other." Four, the redesign reduces teacher isolation and insulation while building a feeling of exclusivity. Five, each subschool has a special purpose or mission at its inception that can be articulated to students and the community. This clarity of purpose helps bond adolescents to the school, keeps staff morale high, and retains parent support. Six, a core curriculum is maintained. Yet curricular fragmentation is likely to be reduced when the organizational flexibility derived from smaller units is utilized for joint teacher planning of interdisciplinary curricular units. Seven, the redesign responds to equity for special education students.

The proposed junior high school improvement program is not designed to make schools bandwagon hoppers. Instead, it is recommended to provide next steps for effective junior high schools that wish to foster healthy social development as well as academic achievement.

The final set of recommendations identify some of the questions raised by this study that might guide further inquiry and extend our present knowledge of how exceptionality in urban junior high schools is developed and nurtured. Questions focus on the stages of change, the characteristics of the innovation, and the impact of site characteristics. Future research might address the following questions:

1. Can the stages of change identified in this study be generalized to other schools and school districts? Are there alternative distinctions that are more useful? What is the appropriate time perspective for each stage of a change process? What is the appropriate balance between initiation,

implementation, and institutionalization? How do the stages of change differ for leaders and followers?

2. How can differences in the social context of schools and school districts be classified and made practically useful when identifying innovations that are likely to succeed? What must the balance be among level of use, fidelity of implementation and teacher adaption to ensure an impact on student outcomes?

3. How can differences in the social setting of schools be classified and made practically useful when applying change strategies? What are the appropriate change strategies for each type of school or school district. At the individual level, what are the rewards and sanctions that motivate individuals to change?

4. Can the relations between the innovation, the stages of change, and the local setting be ordered? Do certain changes need to occur before other intervention strategies? What are the links between and among factors? Are some factors sine qua non conditions?

School improvement efforts will continue. Thus, researchers must continue to examine the efforts of practitioners and to develop models that provide new insights into the factors that contribute to success. The ingredients of successful change are complex and seemingly unending. Unraveling the mystery of successful change require the cooperation of practitioners and researchers.

Postscript

The author is currently studying the school district's implementation of the recommendations cited in this study. The performance of junior high school students on citywide reading tests continues to exceed the rate of

performance for the city and remains above the national average. Two of the research sites have been recognized as effective schools by external organizations. My tentative findings have provided answers to some of the questions included in the recommendations of my dissertation. A draft of the revisions in the proposed model of change is presented in Figures 4 and 5.

FIGURE 4.

THE COMMUNITY SCHOOL DISTRICT X MODEL OF CHANGE

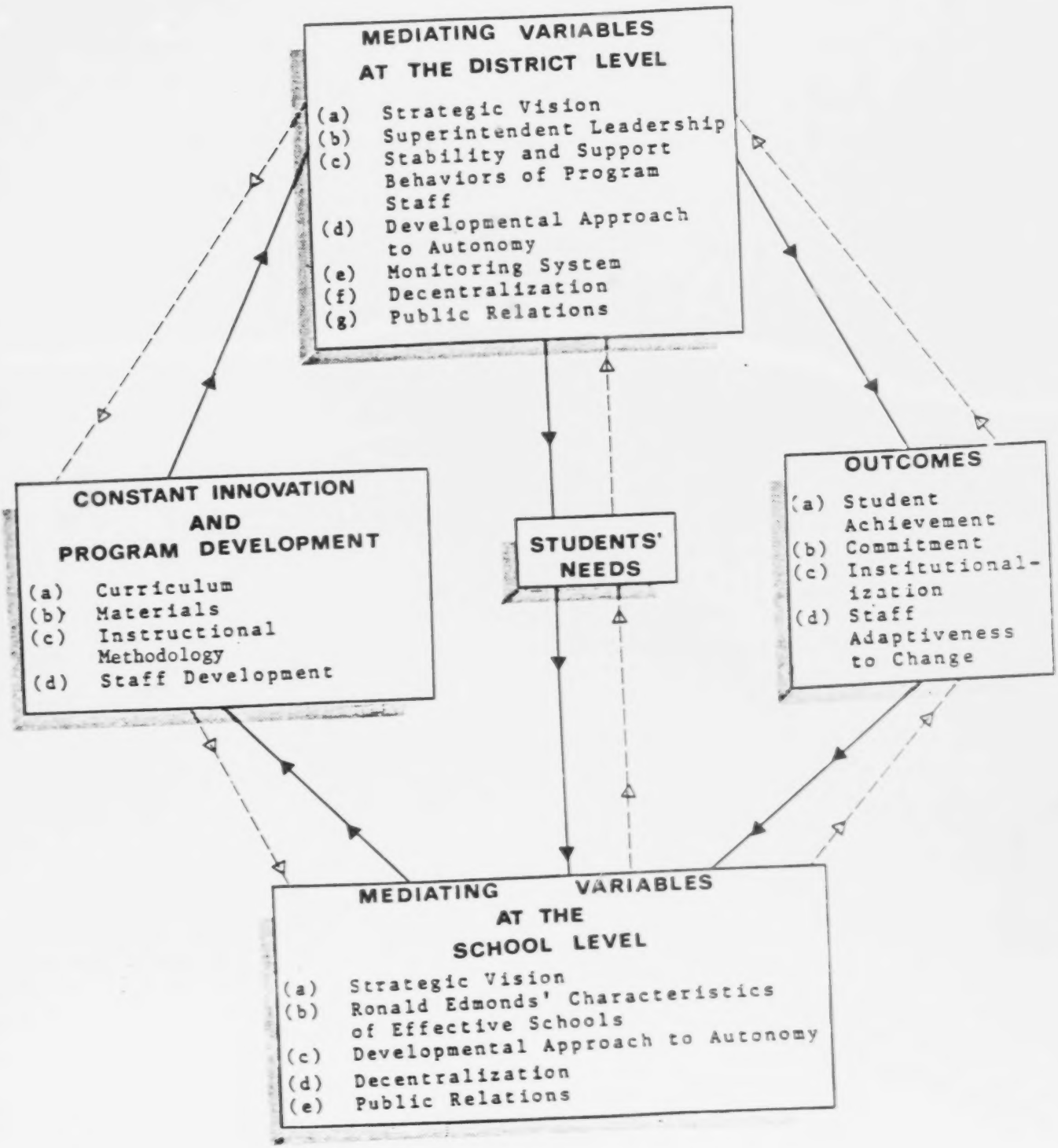
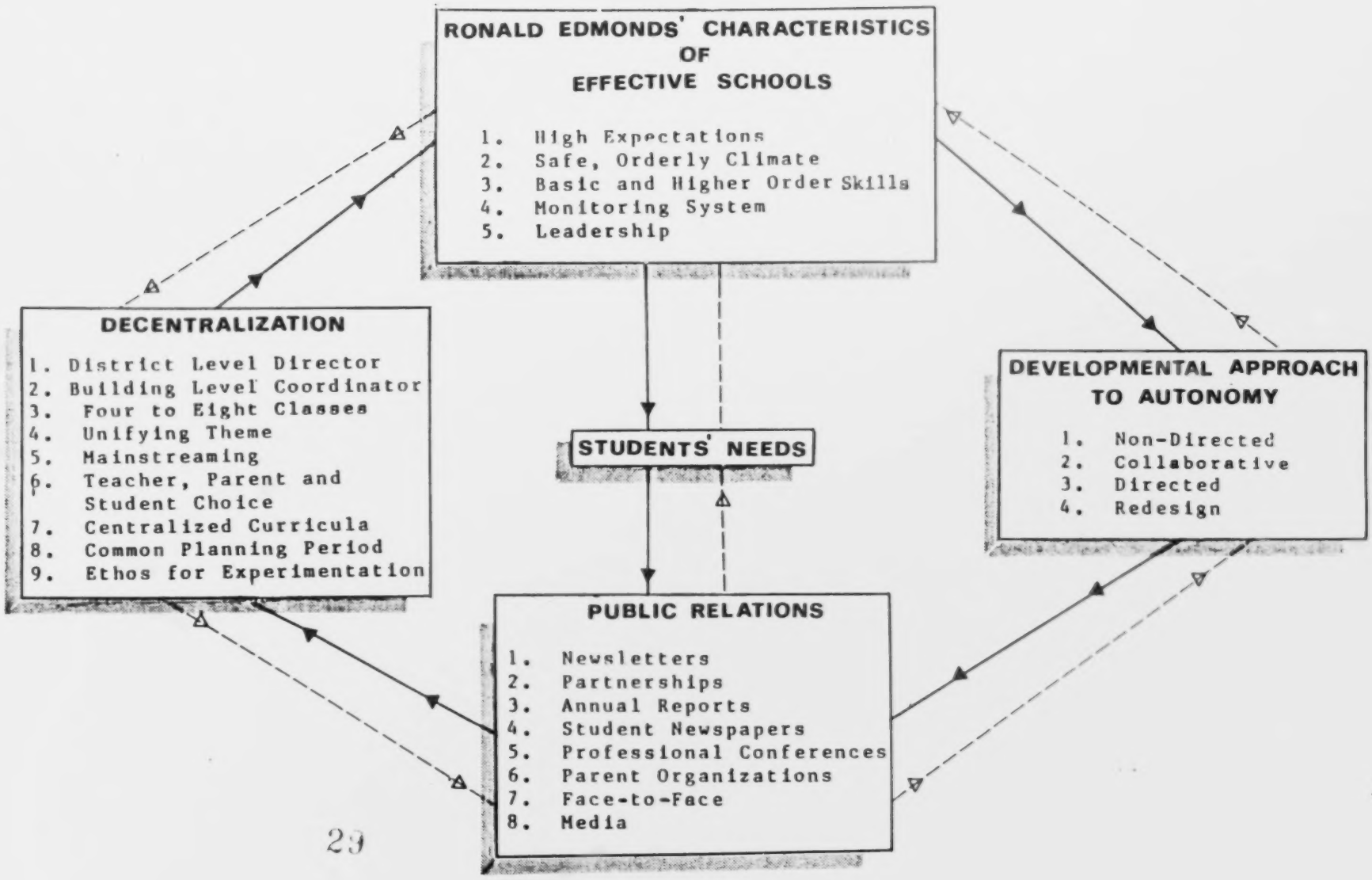


FIGURE 5. COMPONENTS OF THE MODEL OF CHANGE



REFERENCES

Abbott, M. G. (1975). The school as social system: Indicators for change. In J. V. Baldridge & T. E. Deal (Eds.), Managing change in educational organizations (pp. 176-186). Berkeley: McCutchan.

Allison, G. T. (1971). Essence of decision: Explaining the Cuban missile crisis. Boston: Little, Brown.

Becker, H. S. (1970) Sociological work. Chicago: Aldine.

Berman, P., & McLaughlin, M. W. (1978, May). Federal programs supporting educational change, Vol. III: Implementing and sustaining innovations (Report No. R-1589/8-HEW) Santa Monica, CA: Rand Corporation.

Botel, M. (1981). A comprehensive reading communications arts plan. Harrisburg, PA: Pennsylvania Department of Education.

Burke, W. W., & Hornstein, H. A. (1972). Introduction. In W. W. Burke, & H. A. Hornstein (Eds.) The social technology of organizational development (pp. xi-xxii). La Jolla: University Associates.

California State Department of Education. (1969). Handbook for junior high school education in California. Sacramento: Author.

California State Department of Education. (1979). Handbook for planning an effective reading program. Sacramento: Author.

Corwin, R. G. (1973). Reform and organization survival. New York: John Wiley.

Crandall, D. P., and Associates. (1982). People, policies, and practices: Examining the chain of school improvement. Andover, MA: The Network.

Cuban, L. (1984). Transforming the frog into a prince: Effective schools research, policy, and practice at the district level. Harvard Educational Review, 54, 129-151.

Dahrendorf, R. (1961). Toward a theory of social conflict. In W. G. Bennis & R. Chin (Eds.), The planning of change (pp.445-451). New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Deal, T. E., & Kennedy, A. A. (1982). Corporate culture. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Deal, T. E., Meyer, J. W., & Scott. W. R. (1975). Organizational influences of educational innovation. In J. V. Baldridge & T. E. Deal (Eds.), Managing change in educational organizations (pp. 109-132). Berkeley: McCutchan.

Edmonds, R. (1979). A discussion of the literature and issues related to effective schooling. Author's Manuscript.

Elmore, R. F. (1978). Organizational models of social program implementation. In D. Mann (Ed.), Making change happen? (pp. 185-223). New York: Teachers College Press.

Emmer, E., & Evertson, C. M. (1980). Effective classroom management at the beginning of the year in junior high school classrooms (Tech. Rep. No. 6107). Austin: The University of Texas, The Research and Development Center for Teacher Education.

Galbraith, J. R. (1977). Organization design. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

George, P., & Lawrence, G. (1982). Handbook for middle school teaching. Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman.

Ginsburg, A. L., & Turnbull, B. (1981). Local program coordination: An alternative structure for federal aid to schools. Educational

Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 3, 33-42.

Goodlad, J. I. (1975). The dynamics of educational change. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Goodlad, J. I. (1979). Can our schools get better? Phi Delta Kappan, 61, 342-346.

Goodlad, J. I. (1984). A place called school. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Gross, N., Giacquinta, J. B., & Bernstein, M. (1971). Implementing organizational innovations. New York: Basic Books.

Hall, G. E. (1977). The concerns-based approach to facilitating change. Educational Horizons, 20, 202-208.

Hall, R. H. (1979, 1982) Organizations: Structure and process. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Heckman, P. E., Oakes, J., & Sirotnik, K. A. (1983). Expanding the concepts of school renewal and change. Educational Leadership, 40, 26-32.

Herriott, R. E., & Gross, N. (1979). Theoretical and practical implications. In R. E. Herriott & N. Gross (Eds.), The dynamics of planned educational change (pp. 353-380). Berkeley: McCutchan.

Joyce, B., & Showers, B. (1983). Power in staff development through research on training. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Kean, M. H., Summers, A. A., Raivetz, M. J., & Farber, I. J. (1979). What works in reading? Philadelphia: Office of Research and Evaluation, the School District of Philadelphia.

Lipham, J. M., & Rankin, R. (1982). Change leadership and decision

making in improving secondary schools. Madison, WI: Wisconsin Center for Education Research.

Lipsitz, J. (1984). Successful schools for young adolescents. New Brunswick, NJ: Transaction Books.

McGriff, D. (1985). Change in the junior high schools of a decentralized school district. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Fordham University, New York.

McLaughlin, M. (1978). Implementation of ESEA Title I: A problem of compliance. In D. Mann (Ed.), Making change happen? (pp. 162-184). New York: Teachers College Press.

National Assessment of Educational Progress. (1981). Three national assessments of reading: Changes in performance, 1970-1980 (Report No. 11 R-01). Denver, CO: Education Commission of the States.

National Commission on Excellence in Education, A nation at risk. (1983). Washington, DC: US Department of Education.

National Science Board Commission on Precollege Education in Mathematics, Science and Technology. (1983). Educating Americans for the 21st century. Washington, DC: Author.

National Task Force on Education for Economic Growth. Report and recommendations of the National Task Force on Education for Economic Growth. (1983). (not cited): Education Commission of the States.

New York City Public Schools, Office of Academic Planning. (1983). Design for academic progress. New York: Author.

Office of Funded Programs, Comprehensive Planning Unit of the New York City Board of Education. (1981). Helping schools work:

Comprehensive planning models. Brooklyn, NY: Board of Education of the City of New York.

Peters, T., & Waterman, R. H. (1982). In search of excellence. New York: Harper & Row.

Pressman, J. (1975). Federal programs and city politics. Berkeley: University of California Press.

Project RISE Task Force. (1979). Local school planning guide 1979-1980. Milwaukee, WI: Milwaukee Public Schools.

Rogers, D., & Chung, N. (1983). 110 Livingston Street revisited. New York: New York University.

Sarason, S. B. (1971, 1982). The culture of the school and the problem of change. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Sarason, S. B. (1972). The creation of settings and the future societies. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Schmuck, R. A., Runkel, P. J., & Langmeyer, D. (1972). Improving organizational problem solving in a school faculty. In W. W. Burke & H. A. Hornstein (Eds.), The social technology of organizational development (pp. 286-306). La Jolla, CA: University Associates, 1972.

Schoephoerster, H. D. (1981). Organizing the reading program. Baton Rouge, LA: Department of Education.

Sparks, G. M. (1983). Synthesis of research on staff development for effective teaching. Educational Leadership, 41, 65-72.

Stallings, J. A. Needels, M., & Stayrook, N. (1979). How to change the process of teaching basic reading skills in secondary schools. Menlo Park, CA: SRI International.

Tanner, L. (1983). Curriculum history and educational leadership. Educational Leadership, 41, 38-39, 42.

Weick, K. E. (1976). Educational organizations as loosely-coupled systems. Administrative Science Quarterly, 21, 1-18.

Weick, K. E. (1982). Administering education in loosely coupled schools. Phi Delta Kappan, 63, 673-676.